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THE SEPTEMBER COVER

Each year, the September issue of the Journal features the leading contribution of the Division of Research of Indiana State Teachers College produced during the past year. The feature article is a study of the commuting teacher. The cover picture, showing two teachers leaving for home, is emblematic of week-end commuters.

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A Survey of the Commuting-Teacher Situation in the Township Schools in Indiana

Marian A. Kittle and J. R. Shannon

The writers, Assistant Director and Director of Research at Indiana State Teachers College, were aided in the preparation of the questionnaire used in the survey by the following graduate students of the College: Herbert E. Atchley, Betty Rose Hall, Leo F. Kirby, Vesper Dale Moore, Elden F. Nelson, Clarence E. Robbins, and Emma Jane Sabiston. The original proposal of making the survey came from Mr. Moore. Catherine E. James gave clerical assistance.

Some theorists in education, and also some school administrators, have insisted for many years that teachers identify themselves with the communities in which they teach. This insistence has been particularly acute in rural and village schools. Nevertheless, the National Conference on the Rural Child in the War Emergency, held in Chicago in July, 1942, and called jointly by the American Council on Education and the Committee on Rural Education, recommended that "communities immediately remove all artificial barriers to the recruitment and selection of available persons (teachers) such as residence requirements." The war, and the war industrial boom, have created a shortage of teachers as marked as the public schools have ever had to endure. In light of this shortage, discrimination against commuting teachers, whether based on valid objections or not, may have to be discontinued.

A survey of the commuting-teacher situation in the township schools of Indiana during the school year of 1942-1943 was conducted to discover: (1) the prevalency of commuting by

teachers; (2) whether commuting was more common during that war year than in a typical year before the war; (3) what justification there was for it from the point of view of the teachers who did it; (4) what the attitude of the public was toward teachers who thus refused to fully identify themselves with the rural or village communities; and (5) how the commuting teachers compared with other teachers in certain subjective measures of efficiency.

The logical, easy, and economical way to get the data was by the much abused, accused, and excused questionnaire. Without discussing at length the merits and demerits of the questionnaire as a survey device, the recent conclusion by A. L. Crabb is worth quoting in part.¹ "The questionnaire is a necessary and imperative instrument of educational exploration and discovery. It, in certain phases, permits a fluency of effort and a degree of results which could not be reached by any other approach." In the present instance, it is assumed that its use, to quote Crabb further, "engages in well-phrased, easily understood, orderly, and sequential inquiry concerning matters which are obviously of sufficient importance to demand the attention and time of conscientious educators."

Township high-school principals were the "conscientious educators"

¹ A. L. Crabb, "How Are Your Questionnaires This Season?" *Peabody Journal of Education*, Vol. 21, p. 52. (July, 1943).

addressed. Their names and addresses were taken from the year's edition of the *Indiana School Directory*. Each principal was asked to "answer for your entire township, exclusive of independent city or town systems governed by school boards." Obviously, townships without township high schools were not covered by the survey. Also, townships with more than one township high school were omitted from the survey because of the danger of getting duplications of data from such. For related reasons, townships with joint township high schools were omitted. With these exclusions, 618 questionnaires were mailed.

Evidence that the recipients of the questionnaires were impressed by the significance of the survey lies in their generous replies, 566, or 59 per cent, co-operating. As usual, some of the replies were so inaccurately or inadequately filled out that they were useless, such number this time being 49 for Part I of the questionnaire and an additional nine for Part II (Part I covered general information pertaining to the subject of commuting teachers.)² Even the reduced numbers (517 and 508) represent approximately one half of the questionnaires mailed out and nearly one third of the total number of townships in the State, certainly a large enough proportion to be representative, if equitably distributed, and probably to assure validity of data.

Respondents were not asked to give their names or addresses. Therefore, the geographical distribution of replies could not be determined fully. However, this willful omission from the questionnaire was assumed to enhance the reliability of replies by removing the personal element. That the townships reporting are represent-

² Eighteen principals reported for just their village schools. These eighteen were included among the usable replies, however, because it may have been that some such schools were the only ones in their townships, there being complete consolidation. In all such cases there is strong likelihood that the village schools represented the greater part of their respective corporations.

ative of all Indiana in regard to their total population and number of teachers employed, is clear to one familiar with Indiana civil and school geography if he studies Tables I and II, which show the distribution of the 317 townships by population and total number of teachers.

TABLE I
DISTRIBUTION OF THE 317
TOWNSHIPS ON THE BASIS
OF POPULATION

Intervals of Population	Frequencies
Over 10,000	6
5,001 to 10,000	11
2,501 to 5,000	34
1,251 to 2,500	99
1,250 or fewer	132
Not answered	35
Total	317
Median	1508.6

TABLE II
DISTRIBUTION OF THE 317
TOWNSHIPS ON THE BASIS
OF NUMBER OF TEACHERS
EMPLOYED

Intervals of No. of Teachers	Freq.
50 or more	5
25 to 49	31
15 to 24	80
10 to 14	126
5 to 9	74
Not answered	1
Total	317
Median	12.4

Further evidence of the reliability of the 317 replies is lent by the high average number of years the responding principals had been in their present positions. The average number, including the year of the survey, was 8.2.³ The principals had been in their positions long enough to know their facts. Even the few who were serving their first years should have known theirs too, for the questionnaires were

³An unsurprising side light is that the average tenure of the principals rose steadily with the populations of their townships and with the total numbers of teachers employed.

not mailed till March 17, late in the school year.

PREVALENCY OF COMMUTING BY TEACHERS

The items in the questionnaire were not grouped according to the five major questions the survey hoped to answer. Instead, they were arranged in a combination of logical and psychological orders designed to appeal to the respondents and to make their replying easier and their replies more reliable. The survey recognized two types of commuting teachers, daily commuters and weekly commuters. Daily commuters were defined as "those who live outside the township in which they teach and go back and forth daily." Weekly commuters were defined as "the so-called 'suit-case' teachers who leave their teaching communities practically every week end." The survey revealed 986 daily commuters and 302 weekly ones — a total of 1,288. Since the corporations reporting employed a total of 5,206 teachers, the percentage of daily commuters was 18.94 and weekly ones was 5.80. The total number of commuters was almost one fourth of the total number of teachers employed. To be exact, it was 24.74 per cent.

The 1,288 commuters of the two types were distributed by teaching level and sex as shown in Table III.

TABLE III
DISTRIBUTION OF DAILY AND
WEEKLY COMMUTING
TEACHERS BY GRADE AND
BY SEX

Classifications	Frequencies
Daily commuters	986
Elementary school	558
Female	295
Male	63
High School	628
Female	584
Male	244
Weekly Commuters	302
Elementary school	77
Female	74
Male	3
High School	225
Female	187
Male	38

The most significant observations to be made from the table are that the daily commuters far outnumber the weekly ones (more than three to one) and that commuting teachers in the high school far outnumber those teaching in the elementary school (nearly two to one).

That much larger numbers of high-school teachers are commuters than elementary teachers probably is due to the common practice in township schools of employing local residents in the elementary school more than in the high school. In response to the question, "How many of your non-commuting teachers are home teachers ('natives')?" the answers showed an average of 5.8 per township, which represents nearly half the non-commuting teachers.⁴

Further details on the incidence of commuting teachers in the township schools of Indiana are shown in Table IV. The preponderance of married

TABLE IV
DISTRIBUTION OF COMMUTING
TEACHERS ON THE BASIS
OF MARITAL STATUS AND
TENURE STATUS

Classifications	Frequencies
Daily commuters	
Marital status	986
Married	679
Single	274
Widowed	51
Not answered	2
Tenure status	986
Tenure teachers	118
Non-tenure teachers ..	868
Weekly commuters	
Marital status	302
Married	86
Single	207
Widowed	9
Tenure status	302
Tenure teachers	19
Non-tenure teachers ..	282
Not answered	1

teachers among the daily commuters and of single ones among the weekly

⁴The reports on the number of home teachers did not distinguish between elementary and high school.

commuters is outstanding and significant. The probable explanation of this fact is presented under the consideration of the third major objective of this survey (see Table V).

A final consideration under the heading of the first major objective of the survey is the length of teaching experience of the commuting teachers. Counting the year the survey was made, the daily commuters had been in the profession an average of 10.81 years and the weekly commuters an average of 7.30 years. These averages compare favorably with those for Indiana teachers in general,⁵ and a probable explanation of why the average for daily commuters is higher than for weekly ones also is presented under the consideration of the third major objective of the survey (see Table V).

COMPARISON WITH PREWAR YEARS

Only one item in the questionnaire pertained to the second major objective of the survey. The first item in the questionnaire (placed first for psychological reasons) was: "Is the number of commuting teachers in your township this year greater, less, or the same as in a typical year before the war?" The replies to this question were: greater, 113; less, 18; the same, 133; not answered, 53. There were variations in the percentages of answers of the different types by principals in townships and schools of the size intervals indicated in Tables I and II, but these variations resembled no significant or meaningful pattern. The only defensible conclusion regarding the prevalence of commuting by teachers in the war year of 1942-1943 in comparison with prewar years is that in slightly over half of the schools reporting on the item there was no difference, but that in somewhat less than half of such schools there was a greater amount. On the whole, commuting was increased by the war.

⁵J. R. Shannon and Marian A. Kittle, "Teacher Turnover in Indiana During the Ten Years of the Depression," *The Teachers College Journal*, Vol. XV, pp. 1-6. (September, 1943).

JUSTIFICATION FROM COMMUTING TEACHERS' VIEWPOINTS

Four questions scattered through the inquiry blank were designed to get information relative to possible justifications for commuting from the point of view of the teachers doing it. They were: (1) "Are suitable housing and rooming facilities available in your township for teachers who do not already live there?" (2) "Does he (an individual commuter) maintain a home of his own?" (3) "Does he have family responsibilities or business ties which prevent his living in your township?" (4) "How many miles is your school from a large shopping center?" The replies to these questions were quite revealing.

On the surface, the situation regarding availability of suitable housing and rooming facilities seems about fifty-fifty. With six of the 317 principals not answering the question, 152 said such facilities were available, and 159 said they were not. But that is far from the whole truth. Significant revelations come to light when the data are broken down. Principals of schools with fewer than fifteen teachers and in townships with populations of 1,250 or less reported unavailability of living quarters almost twice as many times as availability. In the larger places, teachers had less excuse for commuting, for suitable living quarters were available in most places.

To some extent, availability of suit-

able quarters is related to proximity to large shopping centers. Suitable quarters were reported as not available in the majority of suburban communities twenty miles or less from shopping centers, whereas the situation was reversed in communities at greater distances.

Teachers' maintaining homes of their own, and having family responsibilities or business ties which prevent their living in the townships where they teach, have significant bearings on daily commuting but not on weekly commuting. Details on these factors are given in Table V.

Earlier in this report, it was pointed out that most daily commuters were married but most weekly ones were single, and the probable explanation was not given at the time. Also, earlier in this report, daily commuters were shown as having had longer teaching careers than weekly commuters, and the explanation was postponed. It is reasonable to account for both phenomena with the data of Table V. Married teachers are more likely to maintain homes and have family responsibilities which make it inconvenient to live in corporations where they teach than is the case with single teachers. Single teachers are more likely to be gone to their parents' homes on week ends. Also, the stabilizing factors of maintaining homes and having family responsibilities are more likely to be associated with more mature people who have

TABLE V
RELATIONSHIP OF COMMUTING TO TEACHERS' MAINTAINING HOMES AND HAVING FAMILY RESPONSIBILITIES OR BUSINESS TIES

Factors Affecting Commuting	Frequencies by Types of Commuters	
	Daily	Weekly
Maintaining home of own		
Do	746	81
Do not	217	211
Not answered	25	10
Having family responsibilities or business ties		
Do	609	92
Do not	367	209
Not answered	10	1

lived long enough to have achieved longer teaching careers.

The final factor which was assumed to be a possible justification for commuting by teachers was distances of township schools from large shopping centers. This did not prove to be a contributing factor, however. The median distance of the 317 schools from a large shopping center was only 14.4 miles. In fact, the nearness of shopping centers, rather than long distances from them, could be called a contributing factor to commuting, as was suggested while considering availability of suitable living quarters.

PUBLIC OPINION AND COMMUTING

Two items in the questionnaire dealt directly with the attitude of the public in the various townships toward commuting by teachers, and two others dealt with it indirectly. The principals were asked whether the attitude of the public was favorable, unfavorable, or neutral toward each of the two types of commuting. A distribution of the replies is shown in Table VI. Obviously, from a glance

TABLE VI
COMMUNITY ATTITUDES
TOWARD COMMUTING BY
TEACHERS

Attitudes	Frequencies by Types of Commuting	
	Daily	Weekly
Favorable	55	51
Unfavorable	53	54
Neutral	202	209
Not answered . . .	7	23

at the table, the public is not concerned one way or the other in two thirds of the communities, if the principals have evaluated public opinion correctly, and those communities which have a prejudice one way or the other are approximately counter-balanced by communities with the opposite preference. When the replies were tabulated by sizes of schools and townships as in Tables I and II, the distribution for each of the categories was essentially the same as for the total.

An indirect evidence of community attitude toward commuting by teachers is toleration of it, as shown by teachers' being continued in their positions in spite of their commuting. Replies by the principals showed that the average number of years the 986 daily commuters had been in their present positions was 4.55, and that they had been commuting for an average of 5.80 years. Corresponding average numbers of years for the 302 weekly commuters were 2.87 and 2.62.

From these direct and indirect evidences of public attitude toward commuting by township teachers, it is clear that communities on the whole, do not object. Teachers at last are gaining some freedom to live their own lives. However, in the eleven to seventeen per cent (for weekly and daily commuters, respectively) of communities which prefer having their teachers identify themselves more fully with them, the teachers should comply.

EFFICIENCY OF COMMUTING TEACHERS

Admitting that teaching merit can not be measured reliably, supervisors' estimates of teaching efficiency come as near as can be hoped to evaluate

teachers and teaching. The questionnaire asked the principals to rate each commuting teacher as "above, below, or the same as the average of non-commuting teachers in your township" in regard to "his efficiency," "his participation in school functions," and "his participation in community functions." A summary of the principals' ratings is outlined in Table VII.

The summary shows that two thirds of the commuters of each type were regarded by their principals as equal in efficiency to the average of non-commuters, and that daily commuters above and below average were practically equal in number. But the number of weekly commuters below average was significantly higher than the number above. Net score thus far: no difference in efficiency between non-commuters and daily commuters, but a slight advantage for non-commuters over weekly commuters.

Greater inequality of commuters and non-commuters existed in regard to the teachers' participation in school functions. Slight majorities of both types of commuters were regarded by their principals as the same as the average of non-commuters, but the

TABLE VII
A SUMMARY OF PRINCIPALS' RATINGS OF COMMUTING
TEACHERS IN COMPARISON WITH THE AVERAGE OF
NON-COMMUTING TEACHERS

Bases of Rating and Degrees of Merit	Daily Commuters		Weekly Commuters	
	Frequency	Per Cent	Frequency	Per Cent
Efficiency				
Above the average	155	15.72	29	9.60
Below the average	159	16.15	59	19.54
The same	655	66.45	210	66.56
Not answered	17	1.72	15	4.30
Participation in school functions				
Above the average	121	12.27	27	8.94
Below the average	318	32.25	89	29.47
The same	555	54.06	177	58.61
Not answered	14	1.42	9	2.98
Participation in community functions				
Above the average	77	7.81	20	6.62
Below the average	508	51.52	177	58.61
The same	578	58.54	95	30.79
Not answered	25	2.55	12	3.97

numbers of both types below average were distinctly larger than the numbers above. Score thus far: greater advantage for non-commuters over commuters.

Still greater inequalities existed in regard to participation in community functions. A majority of commuters of each type were regarded as below the average of non-commuters, and the numbers who were above the average were much smaller than the numbers who were the same. Final score on ratings: daily commuters were regarded as equal to the average of non-commuters in efficiency, but weekly commuters were slightly less so; both groups of commuters were behind the average non-commuters in participation in school functions, although a majority of each group were rated as equal; a majority of each group of commuters were below the average non-commuters in participation in community functions, and the ones who were above were far outnumbered by those who were only the same.

An indirect evidence of school administrators' esteem for teachers is the salaries they pay them. The questionnaire sought the monthly salary of each commuting teacher in the school year of 1942-1943, how that salary compared with the average for non-commuting teachers in the same townships, the monthly salary the year before, in case the teacher taught in the same corporation the year before, and how that salary compared with others of that year. The principals replied less satisfactorily to some of these items than to others in the questionnaire, however, and therefore conclusions on the subject are less warranted.

The only statistical table on relative salaries which can be made from the data and not have so many unanswered cases as to invalidate it is Table VIII. This table shows the relative salaries of commuting and non-commuting teachers during the year of the survey, and indicates clearly that commuters were not paid less, on the whole, than the others. In fact, more received salaries above the av-

TABLE VIII
A COMPARISON OF NON-COMMUTING TEACHERS' SALARIES
WITH THE AVERAGE OF NON-COMMUTING TEACHERS'
IN 1942-1943

Status in Comparison	Daily Commuters		Weekly Commuters	
	Frequency	Per Cent	Frequency	Per Cent
Above the average	162	16.43	38	12.58
Below the average	60	6.09	25	8.28
The same	728	73.83	226	74.83
Not answered	36	3.65	15	4.50

erage than below it, although practically three fourths of each type of commuters received the same as the average for non-commuters.

From the remaining data on salaries — unsatisfactory because of their incompleteness and because several commuting teachers were serving their first years in their present positions at the time of the survey — conclusive generalizations can not be drawn. The data suggest, however, that there was a slight increase in salaries from 1941-1942 to 1942-1943, and that commuters and non-commuters shared about alike in the same.

From a combination of principals' ratings and salary data, we must conclude either that there is no relationship between salaries and total merit, or that participation in school and community functions is not highly regarded. In light of the fact that the public was indifferent toward commuting by teachers in two thirds of the townships, when commuting teachers must almost inevitably participate less fully in school and community functions than resident teachers, it may be inferred that in such communities such participation was not regarded as essential to total merit. On the other hand, any one well informed in school administration is aware that payment of teachers in proportion to merit probably can never be more than another "noble experiment."

CONCLUSIONS

1. It seems altogether reasonable to assume that the data procured in this survey of commuting by teachers in the township schools of Indiana are representative of the rural and village schools of the State.

2. Practically one fourth of the township teachers of Indiana in 1942-1943 were either daily or weekly commuters, but the daily ones outnumbered the others more than three to one.

3. Commuting was more widespread by teachers in 1942-1943 than in a typical prewar year.

4. Commuting by high-school teachers was almost twice as prevalent as by elementary teachers.

5. The great bulk of daily commuters were married, but the opposite was true of the weekly commuters.

6. Tenure played no significant part in the commuting-teacher situation. Perhaps if rural teachers were protected by tenure, they would have more incentive to settle and remain in the communities where they drew their salaries.

7. Commuting teachers are transients in the profession no more than other teachers. Their total teaching experience, especially that of daily commuters, is as long as that of teachers in general in Indiana.

8. Suitable housing and rooming facilities were not available in the majority of the smaller communities, especially in those near large shopping centers, and most of the daily commuters maintained homes and had family responsibilities or business ties.

9. In two thirds of the townships, the public was indifferent toward commuting by teachers. Their indifference was demonstrated further by their toleration of commuting, the teachers practicing it having done so long enough to try out the public will on the matter.

(Continued on page 24)

Leisure-Time Activities for Teachers

E. L. Abell

In this masterpiece, which is almost poetic, Mr. Abell preaches what he spent a lifetime practicing. For a period of twenty years, Mr. Abell was Professor of Education at Indiana State Teachers College, and spent his leisure time traveling, reading, conducting research, landscaping, fruit-growing, and home-building. Now in retirement, he is useful and happy in the same pursuits.

It is a sad commentary on the life of a man when he spends an entire career in teaching — even in one extreme instance teaching education and extolling the merit of mental hygiene and of the Cardinal Principle of worthy use of leisure time — and then fights retirement at the legally prescribed age with the emotional instability of a small child, claiming he will not know what to do with his time.

Mr. Abell's precepts and example should be used as a model by teachers facing retirement, and by younger teachers who hope to mature gracefully and graciously.

It may seem presumptuous to write of leisure time just now when teachers are overburdened as never before. However, the public, many school administrators, and some teachers have failed to realize that efficiency requires a variety of outside interests which are capable of increasing health and vigor, stimulating mental growth, and yielding personal satisfactions.

In this brief discussion, no attempt is made to use the results of research. The opinions and convictions here expressed are based purely on observation and experience in both public-school and college teaching. Three questions are suggested for consideration: What are the functions of the outside activities of teachers? What characteristics must these activities have in order to fulfill their functions?

What particular types of activities best meet the requirements?

The functions of leisure-time activities for teachers are many, some of which are: supplementing and strengthening the teacher's regular work, helping to keep the teacher in good health and morale, providing interesting contacts with society as represented in community and national life, enlarging and expanding life interests, developing special gifts unused in the teacher's own vocation, and providing that the years of retirement be useful and happy. All these, and many others which might be named, fall naturally into three groups: functions of supplementing the teacher's work, functions of securing satisfactory adjustments to society and its organizations, and functions of obtaining personal satisfactions. Briefly, these three groups might be called vocational, social, and personal.

What kinds of activities best serve the purpose? It is in man's nature to desire variety and contrast in all that he does. If the teacher's work is largely indoors, then some outdoor activity would offer the needed contrast. Continuous dealing with people and the consequent nervous strain could be offset by some hobby involving tools, machines, and materials. If the teacher's work is largely mental, then the contrasting activity should furnish physical activity of a rather strenuous nature. This would insure a good appetite and sound sleep. If the teacher is annoyed by restrictions, rules, regulations, and schedules, then his outside activity should offer freedom, initiative, and scope for originality. Responsibility to others should give way to responsibility only to himself. If

the daily work requires hurry or excitement, then relief might be found in deliberation, relaxation, or contemplation. If the teacher's work involves giving information to others, it might be satisfying in leisure time to learn from others. If the results of the teacher's efforts to change the personalities of pupils are intangible, uncertain, and very difficult to measure, then the contrasting interest should furnish definite, tangible, and observable results. This suggests that a second important characteristic is concreteness or a down-to-earth practicability. Much as man likes to reason or to dream, he must have at least part of the time some results of his efforts which can be easily identified as his very own.

A third and perhaps the most important requirement is that the activity must by its very nature make a personal appeal to the individual. Unless it can arouse interest and enthusiasm, it will be simply another task and will not bring the needed refreshment. Since teachers' tastes differ widely, the finding of a suitable activity becomes a personal problem for each one. Furthermore, no single activity can possibly meet all the needs of any one teacher, and no matter how desirable it might be, it might prove utterly impracticable or even impossible under the circumstances. An ideal outside activity should provide a continuous appeal and unlimited expansion during the years of retirement. Fortunate is that teacher who, after teaching days are over, can find health and happiness in worthwhile life interests.

With the above characteristics in mind, it might be profitable to consider a few of the particular activities which might appear promising, suitable, and available to the average teacher. Probably the most widely followed activity is reading. Teachers are encouraged to become extensive readers. To study, to do some research work, to read widely in one's own or in some related field, often explains the difference between the live, progressive, and inspiring teacher and the one who is stale and monotonous.

Becoming engrossed in some entirely different field from the teacher's own may also furnish the needed contrast to the regular work, and reading purely for entertainment's sake surely has a worthy place in any list of leisure-time activities.

Reading may also be used to supply the many deficiencies in the education of teachers, and may put the reader in touch with all the significant trends in the thinking and feeling of the race in its striving for progress. Perhaps the greatest personal benefit from reading is the opportunity to become acquainted with the choice personalities of all races and of all ages. According to Milton, "A good book is the precious life-blood of a master spirit embalmed and treasured up on purpose to a life beyond life."

The writer not long ago spent the evening in the home of an industrial-arts teacher whose daily load was very heavy and involved a great deal of physical activity. For him, a quiet evening of reading gave the needed contrast and relaxation. His table was piled high with good books representing many fields. He is truly well-read and his reading has made him a better teacher, a better citizen, and a happier individual. Probably teachers would agree that reading is the one activity that can be used with profit by all teachers whatever their special fields of work may be. However, teachers in academic fields will not find reading completely satisfactory as a leisure-time activity. It does not offer them sufficient contrast to school work. It fails entirely in offering physical activity, and it does not take one into the refreshing atmosphere of the great out-of-doors. It is no sure relief from the "dead tired" feeling or the worries which persistently follow up the conscientious teacher even into the hours that are sorely needed for sound sleep.

Space forbids examining in detail all of the numerous activities which might be profitable for teachers. The reader can do this for himself by checking each one with three pertin-

ent questions: "Will this activity make me a more efficient teacher?" "Will it make me a better member of society?" "Will it contribute to my own personal health and happiness?" If a little checking is done, it soon becomes apparent that very few activities rank high in all three of these simple tests. Some are very satisfactory in one way but very weak in others. This suggests that teachers really need several outside interests to be followed at different seasons and under different circumstances. Believing that some of these interests yield more returns than others for the time, effort, and expense involved, the writer is tempted to select a few for special mention because they seem especially worth-while for teachers.

Next to reading might well come travel. Its benefits are well known and can scarcely be exaggerated, but unfortunately it must be infrequent, and is so expensive that for many teachers it remains a luxury to be indulged in very rarely. Europeans, in peace time, gain much from travel by bicycle or on foot, but Americans find these methods too slow in a country of great distances. *However, recovery from a nervous breakdown is also slow.* The value of travel to a teacher is recognized by many school systems in giving teachers as much credit and as much financial aid for travel as for additional training.

Strongly to be recommended also is the development of some special gift as in art or music or in some handicraft. A hobby involving construction of some kind is very satisfying to many teachers. To produce is more enjoyable than merely to be entertained. Thus it may be found stimulating to paint a picture, to write a poem, to make an article of furniture, to raise a beautiful rose or a tasty plum, to landscape the home or school premises, to found a community library, museum, or recreation hall, to take an artistic photograph, to create an interest in community playgrounds, to study wild life in the neighborhood, to lead in Boy Scout or Girl Scout work or in similar organizations, to beautify one's own classroom, to en-

gage in active outdoor sports, or to take an active part in the social or religious life of the community. For those who have the opportunity there are numerous activities connected with home building and preserving.

A wide range of interests can be satisfied in some form of nature study. The out-of-door communion with nature furnishes an ideal contrast to ordinary school tasks. To learn to love the trees, the birds, the flowers, to photograph or paint a beautiful landscape, to study the geology of the local area, to study the insect life of the region and its relation to man, to locate and study spots of historical interest, to study the stars—to become absorbed in interests such as these may provide a continuous source of health and mental growth.

The love of nature has been an inspiration to the masters in music, art, and literature in all ages. It can be no less the joy of others who may be less gifted in expression. To see the beauty of the sunrise, the sparkle of the dew on the grass, the blue of the June sky, the haze of the September afternoon, or the moonlight on the lake; to hear the song of the cardinal, the stir of the wind in the pines, the waves on the sandy beach, or the patter of summer showers; to feel the fresh morning air, the softness of the long grass, or the rest that follows toil; to smell the wild rose, the distant linden, or the upturned garden soil—these common experiences, available to all who seek them, add beauty and meaning to life. Out and away from artificialities, back to the fundamentals of the simple life, a companion to the earth, the air, the sky, and living things, the teacher renews his strength and draws near to the very heart of nature.

"I love not Man the less but Nature more.

From these our interviews, in which I steal,

From all I may be or have been before

To mingle with the Universe, and feel

What I can ne'er express, yet can not all conceal."

— LORD BYRON

Athletics and Physical Education

John Erle Grinnell

Dr. Grinnell, Dean of Instruction at Indiana State Teachers College, in further elaboration of his views on athletics and physical education, says he favors "decreased emphasis on the one and increased emphasis on the other." The editor agrees with the Dean on the need for increased emphasis on physical education for all and on greater attention to individual needs in physical education. Also, he agrees with the Dean — and with practically all authorities in the field of physical education and hygiene — that such strenuous activities as basketball are not good for one so immature as a boy in junior high school. But except for its extension into the junior high school, the editor sees no need for decreasing emphasis on athletics

A very good case can be made for the much-bedamned bleacher athletics. Interscholastic athletics is not intended for the physical fitness of the participants. As A. L. Trester once put it, athletics gives people something to yell for.

Yelling is good for the fans. Dr. A. A. Brill, perhaps America's foremost psychiatrist, and Dr. P. G. Stiles, professor of Harvard Medical School, both defend athletics on the grounds of its physical and mental health-giving qualities to spectators.

The voice of a high-ranking army officer speaking emphatically but calmly over the radio reminded his fellows on a forum that half of the first million selectees were unfit for service. Why?

Why, in this fabled land of promise should such a thing be? Whose fault is it? Is no one to own responsibility — even in part? Schoolmen may point to the medical fraternity and repeat the too-often repeated truism, "Only the rich and the paupers can have adequate medical and dental services." I am not satisfied. I came back late one afternoon from a visit to several schools. There I found a part of my answer — as I have found it in schools up and down the state.

I found boys of junior-high-school age sitting humped over on a bench watching the most athletic of their companions playing basketball. The more need they had for physical development, the less likely they were to have attention. And that during so-called physical education periods.

We have asked the public to support our school program. We have told our patrons at length how well-rounded that program is. We have asked them to believe that we give



the same careful attention to the development of the rapidly growing young bodies of their sons and daughters as we do to the impressible minds. But by our practice we convince parents of non-athletic children that we disregard the round shoulders developing, the physical softness and slowness taking over, that we are — let's face the damning truth — pretty blind to anything except the speed, skill, and strength of the natural athletes — the ones who need least from us. We know what we should do — but in how many schools do we do it?

It is banal to repeat that it is a serious matter. When, if not now, should we awaken to responsibility in the public schools? Are we to continue to say to our government, "We have had these young men since they were six—for twelve years. Really we don't know when or where they got these defects you talk about. We've made some of them mighty fine athletes. The others — ?" The others — there's the rub. Nearly every town has a gym — a monument to basketball. All right. Nothing bad about that. But is it also for building strong bodies

for all the children? Is it to produce in all youth what our country needs now so desperately — strength, skill, endurance? How many of our high-school graduates can swim? How many can play with some ability at least two competitive sports such as tennis or golf? How many have had opportunities to develop grace and physical poise by such body-shaping activities as tumbling, bar work, diving? How many, because of our program, have learned to like strenuous exercise and to persist in it after leaving school? How many like to walk?

It shouldn't take a war to make us poignantly aware of our dereliction. We have thrown our fine energies into cultivating intellectual growth and putting on physical shows. We have permitted ourselves to be led into believing that if we stage competitions before hysterical fans who are so delighted — if we win — that they buy us big gymnasiums, we have done our duty by youth. When those fans are so partisan that they are not anxious for the preservation of either health or sportsmanship, we are not seriously disturbed. Too often we are even pleased that they should be so loyal (that's what we call it) to the team and the home town. We have made the great bulk of our youth awkward, short-winded, and spectator-minded. That we might make a dozen or even five super-athletes and put on a good show, we have condemned a hundred to flabby muscles, physical timidity, and incompetence for the army or any rigorous life.

Not in all health matters have we been derelict. For a decade or more we have been making enormous strides in a campaign against malnutrition, and we have been teaching hygiene. We have had the government urging us by direct assistance to provide free lunches for the undernourished and better-balanced food for all children. Under the goading of an aggressive state health department we have even dreamed of being the one vital force in bringing about better health through scientific nutrition. To this phase of our responsibility

(Continued on page 25)

Teachers College Journal

Basic English

Victor C. Miller

On the occasion of the conferring upon him of the honorary degree of Doctor of Laws, September, 1945, Winston Churchill, the prime minister of England, took the opportunity to speak favorably of Basic English. His few remarks stirred more interest and led to more wide-spread information about and criticism of this relatively new proposal for an international tongue than it had attracted in the approximately thirteen years since its first publication. Practically every periodical in the country found or made space for one or more discussions of it. This paper by Dr. Miller, Professor of English at Indiana State, is perhaps the latest such writing.

It seems possibly worth while to present first a statement of conditions that have made the ground for the devising of a language that could become international, and some rather simple characterization of some of the artificial tongues that have in the past been offered to the world.



By one count there are said to be 1,700 languages spoken on the earth, by another count 2,500.¹ The catastrophe of the Tower of Babel was an effective one so far as languages were concerned.

One's mother tongue is always easy, no matter how extensive the vocabulary nor complicated the grammar. And two languages offer no great difficulty if they are learned at the same age in the same way, that is by imitation. For example, along the border between France and Germany, there are many who speak both languages equally well. But for most human beings, a second language

seems difficult, and it makes little difference what the second is.

Let us suppose ourselves to be foreigners to English; what is the problem? Well, an unabridged dictionary lists some 500,000 words, any desk abridgment some 80,000. A well-informed speaker of the language will know some 20,000, and 8,000 function in everyday use. And a three-year-old child's vocabulary will reach 2,000 words.² But there is still more of the problem. Any reader must know several times as many words as he uses, perhaps five to one, perhaps more. Now therefore we conscientious foreigners will have to learn some 5,000 words, some say 15,000 words, by way of insurance before we can understand 1,000. To do so will require two years of hard work, and this excludes the grammar.³ Probably we foreigners would agree with the *Christian Century*: "... we could wish that some basic language might find universal acceptance."⁴

The original universal language was, of course, the language spoken by Adam and Eve and their posterity to the time of the Flood. It has been assumed, in the past, that they spoke Hebrew, and therefore that it had been the universal tongue. At various times, several languages have approached universality: Greek when Greece was at the head of civilization, Latin when the Roman empire flourished, Arabic when Islam was proselytizing with the scimitar, and French in the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries. During the Crusades the use of Italian was wide spread under the name of *Lingua Franca*, which has since lost its capital letters and means

any hybrid language. During the Middle Ages and the Renaissance and after, Latin was the language of scholarship and diplomacy. At present, English is said to be the language of business in the orient. Pidgin English, a mispronunciation of business English, is spreading from Eastern Asia over the whole or much of Malaya.

The need of a universal or international language has been long recognized. The earliest advocate of such a tongue, so far as I happen to know, was Roger Bacon (died 1294) the English friar and scholar. Descartes (died 1650) and Leibnitz (died 1716) are also reported to have advocated the adoption of a common tongue. Pascal (died 1662) and John Locke (died 1704) are also among the advocates.

It is not strange that men have made numerous attempts to devise a language that offered the possibility of internationality. It may be a bit of curious information that some two hundred (one count gives 325) devices aimed to facilitate international communication have appeared at various times and have won more or less of following. But all of these have been artificial; that is, they have sought a made vocabulary and have eliminated more or less the facts of grammar.

There follows, by way of illustration, a short list of the names of some that I have casually met with:

- Lingualumina, 1875.
- Blaia Zimondal, 1884.
- Cabeaban, 1887.
- Zahelensprache, 1901.
- Ro, 1904, by the Rev. P. Foster.

Recent additions are:

- Latinesce, by Henderson.
- Nov-Latin, by Rosa.
- Monario, by Lavagnini.
- Occidental, by de Wahl.
- Europian, by Weisbart.
- Optez, by S. Bond.
- Romanal, by Michaux.

Those named above have won relatively few students. The following have attracted a much more numerous clientele:

¹ New York Times Magazine, September, 19, 1945, p. 12.

² Life, 15:57-58

³ Saturday Review of Literature, 26:12-13.

⁴ Christian Century, 60:1060, September 22, 1945.

Volapük, 1880, by an Austrian priest, the Rev. F. Schleger. It claimed a million students in 1889.

Esperanto, by Dr. Zamenhof, a Russian; first publication a pamphlet in 1887.

Idiom Neutral, 1898.

Interlingua, 1903, by Prof. G. Peano. The mode by which he published his product has some interest. He began an address on the subject of language in Ciceronian Latin. Step by step he proved that the various inflectional endings of Latin were useless, and as he disposed of each one he eliminated it from his speech, and so his discourse ended in *Latino sine flexione*.

Ido, 1907, by Couturat and de Beaufront. This is a simplified Esperanto. One of their "simplifications" was the elimination of syllable accent. One can understand this from a Frenchman.

Nov-Esperanto, 1925, another reworking of Esperanto.

All of this last group started from attempts to improve Volapük.

On what may be a false assumption that one is unfamiliar with Esperanto, I shall devote some space to a discussion of it, in order that later some comparisons may have meaning.

Dr. Zamenhof listed the following as essential characteristics of any international language: It must be international, easy for all, euphonious, phonetic, flexible, unambiguous, logical, regular, adaptable, tested by long practical use on a large scale. The following qualities are claimed for Esperanto:

1. Phonetic spelling.
2. Elimination of sounds that occur in few natural languages.
3. Only 3,000 root words.
4. Only sixteen rules of grammar; no exceptions.
5. Simplified inflectional system.
6. Words taken from any natural language but usually modified in form and sound.

By comparison of this second list with the first, it will be made obvious

at once that Esperanto possesses perhaps most of the good qualities.

An English speaker will at once grasp the significance of the sixteen rules of grammar, exclusive of exceptions. My own judgment is that most of one's language life is occupied with the mastering of exceptions. We are much engaged with idioms, which are, after all, merely exceptions that have become respectable.

That Esperanto is neutral is open to question. It is claimed as a notable fact that all the makers of artificial languages have taken their words largely from languages other than their own. Probably it is hard for one to see or hear his mother tongue garbled. What would be our reaction to seeing the word *she* spelled *si*? My guess is that that attitude is the chief obstacle to the reform of our idiotic spelling system.

Whether it is euphonious must rest upon each listener's ear. Personally I can't call it good-sounding.

It does possess flexibility. An extensive collection of prefixes and suffixes is provided along with directions for the formation of additional words.

Esperanto is regular. All nouns end in -o in the nominative case and add -n for objective. There are only these two cases. Possession is expressed by a prepositional phrase, as in French. The verb has only three tenses, the present ending in -as, the past ending in -is, and the future ending in -os. The infinitive ends in -i. To illustrate: the root of the verb *to love* is *am*; the infinitive is *ami*; the present, all three persons and both numbers, is *amas*, the past is *amis*, and the future is *amos*. There is a whole flock of participles, including a future active and a future passive participle. Verbs have no person nor number. Only personal pronouns have person; they and nouns have number, and the plural of nouns is formed by adding -j (pronounced y) All verbs are regular; there are no irregular verbs. We learn our irregular verbs with no great trouble, but have you ever studied French or German? Given an adjective, if the opposite is needed, prefix

the syllable *mal-*. For example, *bona* means good; *malbona* means bad. It is as if we said, "Johnny is a not-good boy." Gender appears only in the personal pronoun and in the nouns where there is sex distinction, for example, *patro* (father) *patrino* (mother). Note that the feminine infix is -in-.

This lacks much of being a complete exposition of Esperanto. I hope it has been fair and not very false.

Resistance against the man-made languages arises from several conditions. First, they are built around the pattern of the Indo-European family of tongues and are therefore totally strange to immense numbers of orientals whose speech may have nothing that is in the least comparable to any European vocabulary, inflectional system, or syntax. Second, simplification of structure has not gone in a systematic manner nor far enough. Third, no synthetic language has limited its vocabulary to fewer than 3,000 words, at least so far as I have been able to discover. Fourth, a vocabulary of made words or of words taken promiscuously from a number of living languages does not reflect a unified culture and therefore no culture at all. Any living tongue embodies within it a culture that has developed through ages. Fifth, artificial languages offer small reward to their learners. No great nor extensive literature has utilized such a language. And translation, I think, may be said never to be completely true to the original. Sixth, the synthetic tongues lack a tradition and lack a practicing proletariat. One can't go far with a new tongue unless he can find continuous practical use for it. One may read a language understandingly and still speak it clumsily or not at all.

Basic English is a proposed international language. It is said that its exponents prefer to call it a supranational language. From another view, one might call it an intra-national language, for it is just that, a language within a language. Its advocates characterize it as a secondary or auxiliary language useful to men in any land, and especially so to men

engaged in activities whose interests override national boundaries — scientists, businessmen, etc. "Pidgin English" is a kind of business Basic, or Basic is, perhaps one can say, faultless Pidgin.

The history of Basic is short. Its first elementary steps were taken in or about 1920, when Ivor Armstrong Richards and Charles Kay Ogden were at work on their book *The Meaning of Meaning*. In their research, they had occasion to define or re-define many words. They noticed that in doing so they used again and again a relatively small group of words. This suggested that perhaps most meaning could be expressed in relatively few words. Their work from then on consisted in finding the words that could make up the vocabulary. By 1930 the word list had been fixed. It has been recently so frequently printed that I shall not attempt to repeat it.

In determining the words that should make up the vocabulary of Basic, five foundational principles were formulated. They are (1) the elimination of verbs, (2) the analysis of the thirteen operators and the twenty-one directives that replace the verbs, (3) the use of panoptic conjugations in systematic definition, (4) the projectional interpretation of emotive adjectives, (5) the development of the theory of fictions in the treatment of the metaphor. These five principles are quoted. What do they mean?

To understand, one will need to acquire a new system of grammatical terminology. *Operators* are verbs. *Directives* are the structural words, the prepositions, the conjunctions, the pronouns, the limiting adjectives, etc. *Names* are the nouns. *General names* are abstract nouns. *Picturable names* are the concrete nouns. *Qualities* are the adjectives.

Now to return to the principles. The first, the elimination of verbs, needs no comment, except that we have long been told to rely upon the verb, that the verb is the picturesque word, that it can well replace the ad-

jective. But Basic makes out with no more than eighteen verbs and five of those are auxiliary verbs.

The second principle means that these few verbs plus prepositions or adverbs carry the load of the approximately 4,000 verbs of the usual vocabulary. Here is an example: Basic *give out* may mean announce, distribute, emit, exude, proclaim. Another example: Basic *give up* may substitute for abandon, abdicate, abjure, cede, forsake, relinquish, renounce, resign, surrender, vacate, withdraw, yield. Thus the originators maintain that virtually every verb in the language can be replaced by one of the eighteen Basic verbs plus a directional preposition.

The "panoptic conjugations" of the third principle means a simple, single inflectional system; for example, all plurals are formed with -s.

The fourth principle means that adjectives are basically literal, then metaphorical. In the expression, *a sharp knife*, the word *sharp* is literal; in *a sharp pain*, it is metaphorical.

And the fifth principle may be illustrated by the word *foot*, which literally means that part of an animal on which it walks; then metaphorically the bottom of a mountain, the mouth of a stream, one end of a bed, a part of a sewing machine, etc. The unabridged dictionary gives, I believe, some thirty numbered meanings for the word.

In selecting the words to be included, the test used was the number of meanings or the amount of meaning a word would carry. For, of course, the smaller the word list, the heavier the load each must bear. Neither frequency of use nor size of the word was any criterion. Some of the words are long and some are narrow of meaning.

By the application of these five principles, the originators reduced the essential vocabulary to 850 words. Of these, 100 are directors, of which eighteen are operators, 600 are names of things and of these, 400 are general

and 200 are picturable, and 150 are qualities.

As will appear presently, although this constitutes the foundational word list for Basic, there are actually additional words that must be mastered. First, all pronouns retain their usual inflections, *I, my, mine, me*, etc. This one pronoun, as one can see, adds three words. Then there remain all the other personal pronouns. Second, the eighteen verbs retain the usual English conjugation. The one verb *do* gives the additional forms *did, done*. Thus additional words, in effect, are to be learned. Third, at least 300 of the names (nouns) may be equally well verbs. In the list of names appears the word *cook*; it is as much verb as noun. Fourth, the endings -er, -ed, and -ing, are permitted, and this adds more words. Finally, compounds may be made out of the foundational word. Both *cook* and *house* are in the Basic list. They may be hyphenated into *cook-house*. Perhaps one would not go far wrong in saying that these devices double the number of words. It may be added that by adding -ly to the adjectives one brings about the effect of additional words. To express qualities opposite to those provided in the 850-word standard vocabulary, one is directed to prefix *un-* to any of the adjectives in the list. Now, is it not apparent that the 850 words of the Basic vocabulary do not really include all of the vocabulary?

Beyond these, there are provided further additions to the vocabulary for special subjects. Thus, there are 100 additional words in the field of science such as *kidney, porus*, etc. There are fifty additional for the benefit of economists, like *budget, strike*, etc. There are fifty words that are already international, like *alcohol, cigarette, piano, bar*. Finally, 150 additional words have been admitted for the paraphrasing of the Bible. Speaking factually, perhaps I can now say that the advertised vocabulary of only 850 words is a trifle deceptive. But I still maintain that if these additions should double the actual number, the limitation is noteworthy.

Next we shall turn to the syntax of Basic. There are seven principles; they are:

1. All plurals are formed by the addition of -s.
2. Derivatives may be formed from 300 of the nouns by adding -er, -ed, or -ing.
3. Adverbs are formed from adjectives by the addition of -ly.
4. Degrees of comparison are formed with *more* and *most*. This applies to both adjectives and adverbs; thus *round*, *more round*, *most round*.
5. Sentences are made interrogative by inversion or with *do*.
6. Operators (verbs) and pronouns inflect in full in the English way.
7. Such ideas as measurement, numerals, currency, the calendar, and international terms are retained in the English mode of expression.

There are the elements of Basic English as clearly as I am able to state them. There remains only to present the two opposite attitudes toward it.

The service that may be expected from an international tongue falls under four or more main heads.

(1) It will be useful in all diplomatic relations. "A lasting peace and a more understanding world," he (Churchill) declared, "would come from the universal adoption of Basic English," an 850-word highbrow pidgin that can be learned by a ninth-grade boy or girl.

(2) It will function in international congresses, be they convened for whatever purpose imagined.

(3) It will enter into the conduct of international mercantile affairs.

(4) It will contribute to the cultivation and dissemination of information in the world of scholarship, an interest that overleaps national boundary lines.

Any language that aspires to internationality must needs be simple and concise. A reason why English lends itself to condensation is that it is a composite speech. The tongues that have dominated in England and have, therefore, contributed to modern Eng-

lish are Celtic, Latin, Old English, and Norman French. The result is a vocabulary with many overlapping words, and a language whose grammar is simple. Only Chinese is simpler; it has no grammar in the English sense. Otto Jespersen, the Danish philologist, in *Progress in Language*, maintains that progress lies in simplification and that English is the most progressive of modern tongues. Although Chinese has the advantage of a minimum of grammar, it does have tonal accent, which amounts to a handicap. In order to do to French what Basic does to English, Richards estimates that at least 2,000 words would be required, and the same would be true in Spanish; in highly inflected languages, like German, still more words would be required. English therefore can be made the easiest tongue for beginners, and sloughing off endings for simplifications doesn't mangle it as it would a Romance language. It is claimed that a working knowledge of Basic can be acquired in sixty hours. Foreign students may be able to read anything in Basic at the end of a month.

As always, there exists two attitudes toward Basic, that of the prosecution and that of the defense. I shall present first the opposition.

The foes of Basic are of three species:

(1) "The bitterest charge against Basic — whose opponents come chiefly from the ranks of those who advocate another international tongue — is that it represents cultural imperialism. It would impose English on non-English peoples at a time when they want to stand on their own. Its one disadvantage for the purpose indicated is that it is English. It is conceivable that there are a good many people in the world who do not want to speak English, no matter how easy it may be made, and who especially do not want to speak it in negotiating with those who know more English than they do. Doing so would be like playing every game in every kind of diplomatic world series on our home grounds. For this reason Mr. Churchill's speech . . . may be quite possibly

more a hindrance than a help to the promotion of Basic English as a world language. Those whose native language is French or German or Italian or Spanish or Russian or the neutral Swedish . . . may suspect . . . that the prime minister's sudden enthusiasm for Basic English veils a subtle scheme for Anglo-Americanizing the world of international business, culture, and diplomacy."⁵ The answer to all this is that these peoples ask for Basic. Moreover it is asserted that " . . . the greatest number of arguments against this simple language do not commonly come from persons who fear Anglo-Saxon expansion . . . who fear Anglo-Saxon expansion . . . " ⁶

(2) Another source of objection is those who cultivate some purely artificial language, such as Esperanto. Perhaps the motive here is a selfish one.

(3) A third source of opposition is speakers of English. They are said to be unwilling that their mother tongue should be tinkered, and that is quite understandable.

(4) It is also said that teachers of English are in the opposition. Personally, I am not among the opponents. I see no immediate nor distant insuperable harm in Basic. Basic is English, and children of English-speaking parents will master far more of their mother tongue than Basic. It is not bad nor seriously faulty nor to any extent ungrammatical English. What harm can it do?

It must be granted at once, however, that there are certain traits of Basic that are not admirable. Thus, a reader whose native speech is English will presently tire of the frequent repetition of relatively few words in Basic. But for others than English speakers this will not be apparent. "There is bad Basic and good Basic. If it is bad English, it is bad Basic."⁷

Another objection offered to Basic English is that it must of necessity by its very nature sacrifice brevity, con-

⁵ *Christian Century*, loc. cit.

⁶ *Time*, 42:7, p. 44.

⁷ *Loc. cit.*

cisness. Standard English *decapitate* becomes Basic *take the head off*. But conciseness is a virtue. I think the best specimen of concise English is the shortest verse in the Bible, "Jesus wept." The result is, among others, the spoiling of proverbs. "Look before you leap," becomes, "Take a look before you make a jump," or, "Take a look before jumping." Similarly, "A bird in the hand has the value of two in the small tree." "A rolling stone gets no green plant growth." Probably the prime minister would find the necessity of leaving out words far more difficult than the learning of a new language.⁸ Critics get a kind of pleasure out of the clumsiness of Basic. The sentence, "The officer led his soldiers against the enemy, but the enemy stood firm," when turned into Basic sounds like this: "The person in military authority was the guide of his men in the army against the nation at war, but the not-friends stood solidly upright." But Ogden replied by translating, "The lieutenant went in front of his men to the attack, but the other side did not give way."

And what about the lingo of the sports page? I suppose it would be killed. In the language of sports, one might read, "Four Freedoms, a three-year-old colt from the Greentree Stable, found himself free from want of speed for the first time this year and raced to a four-length victory in the Golden Way Purse at the Aqueduct yesterday." Put into Basic, this might read, "Four Freedoms, a horse of three years from the Greentree Stable, had a loss of the loss of being quick for the first time this year and ran to a four-body right end in the Gold Design Bag at the Aqueduct yesterday."

An experiment in the teaching of Basic has been tried with foreign-speaking residents of Hawaii and the Philippine Islands. Miss Elaine P. Swenson, director of the New York office of the Language Institute, says that the experiment was a failure "... because Basic English did not enable the students to understand the

English they heard spoken by their American associates and made them the laughing-stock of those unfamiliar with the limited vocabulary of Basic."⁹ That it is so is quite understandable. The English speakers should, of course, have made use of Basic with the non-English. Anything else would be unreasonable.

One other difficulty remains. That prose may be translated into Basic seems possible and feasible. But I can conceive of no possibility of translating poetry into Basic. Basic is, by its very nature, a prose language. I can conceive of the possibility that verse might be composed in Basic. In fact some poetry, Tennyson's *Crossing the Bar* and *Break, Break, Break*, for example, are almost pure Basic, but try, if you please, to think of Wordsworth's "Ode on Intimations of Immortality, etc." in Basic. The rhythm, the metre, and the rhyme would have to be sacrificed. No, the translation of verse into Basic is out.

So much for the objections. I shall turn now to the favorable attitude toward Basic.

An editorial in the *Christian Century* says, "It is really remarkable what can be done with this apparently meager equipment and equally remarkable how easily it can be learned by one having no previous knowledge of English." With the first assertion I shall show that we must agree; with the second I have no basis for an opinion. The same editorial says also that "... as a possible universal language ... it has ... more to recommend it than Esperanto or Ido."¹⁰ The details will appear as I proceed.

As a candidate for universality, Basic has these advantages. It is spoken as a mother tongue by 200,000,000 people and in some sort by 500,000,000 or 600,000,000 more. It stems from a background of spontaneous literature. None of this can be said of any of the synthetic languages.

For the sake of comparisons, let me add that while English has a potential audience of 700,000,000 or 800,-

000,000, Chinese comes second with some 400,000,000, Russian third, 120,000,000, German and Spanish next with 100,000,000 each, Japanese some 80,000,000, French 75,000,000, Cantonese 60,000,000, Bengali 60,000,000, and Italian and Portuguese about 50,000,000 each.

English leads in world circulation; that is, it is not completely strange anywhere.

A working knowledge of English is easily picked up.

As to the adequacy of English, *Life* says, "There is no exchange of common knowledge, news, or everyday opinion which may not be made clear with Basic's 850 words. And quality of writing is not over-greatly damaged by its narrow limits"¹¹ *Life* lists the following possible functions:

- (1) It can be made the beginning for children.
- (2) It is useful to the immigrant.
- (3) It can become international.
- (4) It relies on the science of semantics. Mr. Richards in his recent book *Basic English and Its Uses* lists four characteristics favorable to Basic:
 - (a.) Though limited, it is normal English.
 - (b.) It can be used to say anything needed for the general purpose of every-day life.
 - (c.) It is easy for anyone to learn.
 - (d.) Each of its words represents its central meaning first, by reference to which its other meanings can be most easily understood.

As has been said, an artificial language must build up a clientele; but Basic English starts with a clientele of from 500,000,000 to 800,000,000 individuals. And it must be remembered that Standard English is expanding.

Basic need not become awkward nor dissonant, but it is likely to become monotonous.

The attitude of others is influential. Churchill has persuaded the British Cabinet to set up a committee of ministers to study the success of Basic, its values, and the advisability of

⁸ *Newsweek*, 22:82.

⁹ *Terre Haute Star*.

¹⁰ *Christian Century*, loc. cit.

¹¹ *Life*, loc. cit.

financing by government its spread. The report of that committee will reveal that, at the outbreak of the war, Basic was taught in 50 countries; that the Rockefeller Foundation and the Payne Fund grants have permitted important research at Harvard by a Commission on English Language Studies; that some fifty books "... have been translated into Basic; and that it is already widely used by international organizations in foreign trade and in international radio.¹²

Basic is a subject of study at Harvard and at the University of Michigan. Basic is said to be sweeping South America. Broadcasts in Basic are on the air for South Americans. A New York book store that specializes in Basic publications reports that more Basic books are sold south of the Rio Grande than north.

Basic is taught in night schools for the foreign-born. At an Arizona school for flyers it is reported that Chinese students were taught Basic and then taught flying in Basic. Rus-

sians are studying Basic and Stalin himself is a student. Mme. Litvinoff has taught Basic and her husband has edited Basic texts for Russians.¹³ Governments-in-exile of Belgium, the Netherlands Czechoslovakia, Poland, Norway, Yugoslavia advocate the establishment of a universal language, and they lean toward English. In most European states, Basic made headway before Munich. At present there are said to be secret classes in Basic in every land beneath the Nazi heel. The BBC sends them lessons in Basic. China, Japan, and India were areas of propaganda until the war interfered. But the war has also made a market for Basic; millions of formerly isolated people now want to participate in world affairs. Basic is their entrance.

Living advocates of Basic include H. G. Wells, George Bernard Shaw, Julian Huxley, and Ivy Litvinoff.

Basic will probably spread, for the radio and airplane international trav-

¹³ New York Times Magazine, loc. cit.

el and commerce will make a means of exchanging thought vital to human progress, even to human survival. And probably Basic English will so function.

Brotherhood

Of all things beautiful and good,
The kingliest is brotherhood;
For it will bring again to earth
Her long lost poesy and mirth;
And till it comes these men are
slaves,
And travel downward to the dust
of graves.

Clear the way, then, clear the way;
Blind creeds and kings have had
their day.
Break the dead branches from the
path;
Our hope is in the aftermath.
To this event the ages ran:
Make way for brotherhood — make
way for man.

— EDWIN MARKHAM

THE GETTYSBURG ADDRESS

Fourscore and seven years ago, our fathers brought forth on this continent a new nation, conceived in liberty, and dedicated to the proposition that all men are created equal. Now we are engaged in a great civil war, testing whether that nation, or any nation so conceived and so dedicated, can long endure. We are met on a great battlefield of that war. We have come to dedicate a portion of that field as a final resting place for those who here gave their lives that that nation might live. It is altogether fitting and proper that we should do this. But in a larger sense we can not dedicate, we can not consecrate, we can not hallow this ground. The brave men, living and dead, who struggled here have consecrated it far above our poor power to add or detract. The world will little note, nor long remember, what we say here, but it can never forget what they did here. It is for us, the living rather to be dedicated here to the unfinished work which they who fought here have thus far so nobly advanced. It is rather for us to be here dedicated to the great task remaining before us — that from these honored dead we take increased devotion to the cause for which they gave the last measure of devotion — that we here highly resolve that these dead shall not have died in vain — that this nation, under God, shall have a new birth of freedom — and that government of the people, by the people, for the people, shall not perish from the earth.

GETTYSBURG IN BASIC

Eighty-seven years back, our fathers gave birth on this land to a new nation, designed to be free and given to the theory that all men are to their Maker equal. Now we are in the middle of a great war among ourselves, testing if that nation, or any nation so designed and given to such a purpose, may long go on. We are come together on a great fighting field of that war. We are come together to put by a part of that field as a last resting place for those who here gave their blood that that nation might go on. It is very right that we do this.

But, in a deeper sense, it is not for us the living to give this field in their name to history. The true men, living and dead, who saw fighting here have so given it far past our power to do anything more or less. The earth will take little note and keep not long in memory what we say here, but it will ever keep in memory what they did here. It is for us the living, though, to give ourselves up here to the unfinished work which they have so far so highly undertaken. It is for us to be here given over to the great work still before us — that from these respected dead we may take greater belief in that cause for which they gave the last full measure of belief — that we may here make it our high purpose that these dead shall not have given their all for nothing — that this nation, under God, will have a new birth — and that government of all, by all, and for all will not come to an end on earth.

Economic Bases of Japan's Military Facism

Noyes E. Leech

Mr. Leech is a graduate of the University of Pennsylvania, with a major in political science. At the present time he is a member of the Ellington Field Band.

Though fascism is a term open to varying interpretations, there is little doubt that Japan has presented, since 1931, the picture familiar to observers of the fascist technique. By terrorism, direct action, shrewd diplomacy, and downright compromise, the Japanese army has spent the ten years between its invasion of Manchuria in 1931 and its attack on the United Nations in 1941 in an attempt to hew its way to political power. Though the fascist movement as led by the army, or more particularly, various cliques within the army, has risen and fallen throughout this period, though the army has worked overtly at times and behind the scenes at others, General Hideki Tojo's appointment as Premier of the government in October, 1941, marked the final attainment to power of the military group at the head of a totalitarian Japan.

This fascist movement can not be explained away merely by recalling the development within the Japanese people of a psychology favorable to war. The long military tradition of the Empire did give rapid impetus to the army's program, lending it not only direction but also a pliant mass support. Military groups were protected by a peculiar constitutional system which allowed them to sway the government as they chose. But, along with these, at the base of the military movement was an economic structure whose principal characteristic was its weakness.

The army moved in on Japan in

the early part of the decade of the 'thirties, and it is the economic organization of this period which we discuss here. For the events of these years determined the direction in which the Japanese Empire would move. Following World War I there existed the hope that Japan might take her place in the society of nations as a people trading on the free competitive basis accepted by the Western World. This hope had been encouraged by a gradual fall in the army's prestige. But the world depression reached Japan, laying bare the weaknesses of its economic structure. Then it was that the army was able to sell its bill of goods to a people now fully exposed to its propagation of a program of aggression and unable or unwilling to fight its assumption of power.

Japan entered her so-called modern period in 1868 with the restoration of the Emperor to power, and immediately took to following the lead of the West in industrialization. But from the outset it was clear that its population was still living in its feudal stages, though technically the peasant was no longer a serf. His plot of land was small, more often than not he was forced to mortgage it, and if he was a tenant his rent was abnormally high — frequently 60 per cent of his crop. In addition, the technique of agriculture was still lacking in modern method and the population was expanding beyond the labor needs for tilling the soil. Surplus workers found their way into budding industry, depressing wages until the standard of living of the laborer was as low as that of the farmer. Thus purchasing power was in existence only for the bare essen-

tials of living so that this new factory industry was compelled to look abroad to foreign markets at an early date.

These conditions existed even into recent years. In 1930, agriculture was still the leading occupation in Japan, employing, according to the census of that year, 14,140,107 workers, while the remaining portion of the working population, 15,470,533 were spread among fishery, mining, industry, trade, transportation, the civil service, the professions, and domestic and other minor occupations. Because of farming conditions, the standard of living and consequent purchasing power of this part of the population was still low at this time. Thirty-five per cent of the farmers held less than one acre of land, another 34 per cent cultivated less than 2½ acres, and another 22 per cent held between 2½ and 5 acres, though it is estimated by agricultural authorities that at least 2½ acres of arable land per person is required to keep him even at a very low dietary standard. Furthermore, these small tracts of land were cultivated by hand by means of intensive farming, with the expenditure of practically no capital except for fertilizer to replenish a soil rapidly being depleted. In addition to the low return from the soil itself, witnessed by the fact that between 1929 and 1933 the annual volume of agricultural products equaled only one fifth of the national income, even though the agricultural working class held the dominant position in numbers we have seen, the farmer was handicapped by a system of land-holding and rents. Only 34 per cent of the farmers at this time were landowners. Forty per cent were partly landowners and partly tenants and 26 per cent were tenants alone. Subsequent conditions caused even an increase in the number of tenants, accompanied by a decrease in the number of landlords. Thus almost 70 per cent of the farming population were paying rent to a landowner for all or part of their land. This rent was in kind, usually representing between 50 and 60 per cent of the total crop. In addition, the

farmer paid out half of the remainder of his crop for fertilizer. Couple with this the heavy taxes on the farming population and it is seen why the farmer either lived on the very level of subsistence or was obliged to borrow, usually from the landlord class, to stay alive, and, what is perhaps more important, to keep the agricultural class in general from going bankrupt. And the landlord would not give up the enormous rent rate, since he too was in a difficult position, being forced to pay 54 per cent of his income in taxes, as opposed to the 14 per cent paid by merchants. All in all, the industrialists could not find much of a market at home among the agricultural workers even at the beginning of the decade of the 'thirties.

Industrial laborers themselves offered little purchasing power. The greater part of industry in 1930 was organized in a fashion similar to agriculture, on a small scale, hand-working, non-capital basis. Out of 5,000,000 industrial workers, 2,200,000 were employed in factories of five workers or less; 1,000,000 were their own employers in home industry. Thus 64 per cent of the industrial population, employed in this small scale industry, was turning out cotton and silk fabrics, porcelain, rubber goods, glassware, and other export items. For industry of this type was retained at such a level to keep costs down. Since they offered the only market outlet for the goods produced, large firms such as the Mitsui and Mitsubishi interests controlled these factories, encouraging this type of manufacturing for three reasons: the small industries could be placed close to cheap electric power; there was no need to expend capital on them; and, since they employed so few workers, the factories were not regulated as to labor conditions by the Japanese Factory Law. The result was that the large industrialists benefited by low wages and long hours, while purchasing power among industrial workers was so low that markets were again sought abroad because of the poor home markets.

Seeking a foreign market, Japan

ran into difficulties. For many years her chief manufactured export had been cotton textiles. But by the very nature of Japan's competitive position she was able to keep her market in cotton only by producing a relatively cheap product which could undersell anything produced in the United States or Great Britain. As a result, she concentrated upon low purchasing-power populations. Even the Chinese market gave way gradually, particularly in the period under observation, to new markets in Asia and Africa. These markets were invaded in spite of numerous tariff and quota barriers set up against Japanese products; and also in spite of the fact that the raw material for the manufacture of cotton textiles had to be imported from abroad, particularly from the United States, which added not only the original cost of the raw cotton, but shipping costs to and from Japan. Thus, to undersell the British in their own markets of India and Egypt, where raw cotton is grown on the spot, Japan added still more to her industrial woes by sending her labor costs still lower to meet the competition.

The condition of the cotton industry was typical of the rest of Japanese manufactures. In both consumers' goods industries, such as cotton and rayon textiles, and in producers' goods industries, Japan was dependent not only upon a foreign market but also upon imports from foreign countries. Japanese production of iron ore even before the financial crisis of 1929-30 was far below that of the rest of the world. The total production of iron ore in Japan and Korea amounted to 828,000 long tons, as compared to 73,028,000 produced by the United States and 18,900,000 by the British Empire. Although iron ore is present in Manchuria, it is of very poor quality, while Chinese ores are not much better. Japan thus felt obliged to cast her eye on the Malays, the Dutch Indies, and the Philippines in considering sources of iron which, if under Japanese control, would make her self-sufficient in this metal, while India of all the eastern countries even today

offers the best attraction for this purpose. Japan proper is also lacking in coking coal for iron and steel production, though she is 91 per cent self-sufficient in other types of coal. Still her coal reserves are far from adequate to support industry for a long period of time without assistance through imports. Oil is also lacking for the Japanese industrial system, and Japan is dependent on distant external sources because of small domestic deposits. Though copper is produced at home, lead, tin, zinc, mercury, nickel, chromium, molybdenum, and manganese must be imported.

Thus the fundamental weakness of the Japanese economy at the beginning of the 'thirties is disclosed. This is that the entire industrial system was dependent upon the one raw material which Japan could offer the world — raw silk. This might be called the prime mover of her economy, since it was necessary for the Japanese to export a product of great enough value to produce foreign exchange sufficient to make possible the import of raw cotton, which in turn when exported would procure foreign exchange for the importation of the raw material necessary for the iron and steel and other producers' goods industries. Whereas cotton was imported principally from the United States, silk found its chief market here also, but only as a raw material, because of United States' imposts against silk textiles. However, following the world depression of 1929-30, and because of increasing use of rayon by the United States, the silk industry of Japan suffered, with cocoon prices after 1929 falling 60 to 70 per cent below the figures for that year. The world market for raw silk fell in value during this period to an alarming extent. In 1927, 741,228,000 yen was the value of raw silk exported from Japan. By 1929 this had been raised to 781,040,000 yen, but the 1930 market took only 416,646,000 yen, and in 1931, 355,393,000 yen was the new low hit by the silk market. The fall in silk prices was truly catastrophic. After World War I the export value of raw silk was 4,300

yen per bale; in 1951 it averaged 611 yen. Where it once amounted to 41 per cent of Japan's exports, in 1934 it accounted for 13 per cent. This served not only to endanger the farmer, who was already on the very margin of production and could not afford to suffer a decrease in the value of his principal exportable product, but undermined the very foundation of Japanese industry and finance capital. The landowner, who expected his rent from the farmer, was usually mortgaged to the banks. He had made loans from these to lend in turn to the farmer in order to keep him out of bankruptcy in an effort to protect his own interests in the face of rising taxes. Should the farmer go bankrupt because silk was falling out from under him at the same time his rice crop was falling in value, the landlord was himself in danger of bankruptcy; so were the banks which had backed him; and so were the larger capitalists whose banking capital was invested largely in the land through these smaller banks. Thus the landowners were anxious to turn to foreign conquest as a means of subsidizing agriculture from the profits of colonial exploitation. The farmers were convinced of a need for some type of cure for their rapidly worsening condition, and the larger capitalists were showing signs of willingness to join in an expansionists movement to get the benefit from foreign conquest which would back up a sagging agricultural and financial economy.

Furthermore, expansion was preached to make necessary the dependence of the Japanese upon the foreign silk market. The army encouraged the Manchurian and Chinese invasions as a means of obtaining raw cotton without dependence on foreign trade. Further, China and Manchuria, and later the outlying areas of East Asia, were looked to as a source of the other raw materials lacking to the Japanese, the heavier materials already mentioned. And finally, territorial conquest was preached as a means of suppressing industrial development in the Far

East which might compete with that of Japan.

The worldwide depression not only destroyed the American market for raw silk, but struck the farmer in regard to his other principal products, rice and wheat. Along with the fall in the price of silk, rice and wheat fell from an index of 100 in 1926 to a low of 45.5 in 1951. As his income decreased, the farmer's indebtedness increased; as his taxes increased, the prices of non-agricultural products decreased, but, significantly, not at the same rate as did agricultural prices. Coupled with the results of bad harvests and mortgage burdens farmers had acquired when prices were high, these facts tended to find agricultural producers hard hit in 1950-51.

The question of food production is of utmost importance in discussing the Japanese economy. Japan is self-sufficient in this respect only if the rice produced in the colonies of Korea and Formosa are counted as part of Japanese production. The economic difficulties of the farmer, in addition to generally bad harvests, were responsible for a falling production of rice in Japan proper in 1951-52, but the main problem was clear to the Japanese. This is that the imports from the colonies were at the expense of the Koreans and Formosans, since they had to import coarser grains, such as millet, for their own use in order that they might export to Japan the finer grains of rice. In case of a rising standard of living in Korea making export unnecessary, or a rapid increase in population in Japan, a rice shortage would appear in the home country. This at any rate was the feeling in 1950. Though Japan had an additional supply of food available in its fisheries, which at this time took roughly 30 per cent of the world's catch, this fear of food shortage, even though it might have been ungrounded or have become real only in case of a war disrupting the import flow of rice to the home country, was a powerful propaganda weapon in the hands of expansionists. Actually the food shortage in Japan existed in a very real sense, even before her

large-scale war of today made such heavy demands on her shipping that she can not rely on rice production elsewhere in the expanded Empire, in that the Japanese have not had a sufficient diet to prevent large-scale malnutrition. A cereal diet such as the Japanese concentrate upon does not give sufficient fats, proteins, vitamins, calcium, and other mineral salts to prevent beri-beri and other diseases which place the Japanese below Western standards of physical condition. But an increase in production of animal foodstuffs, vegetables and fruits can be had only at the expense of cereal production at home, and furthermore, these can not be produced at the same level of intensive cultivation as can the present cereal crops. Expansionists used this as an argument for spreading into areas such as Manchuria, where wider agricultural regions supposedly would permit production on a larger scale to prevent the obvious deficiencies in the Japanese diet.

Finally, the plight of the agricultural laborer and the patently bad food situation was laid at the feet of the so-called population problem. There is no doubt that Japan presented a peculiar problem in this respect. Despite the fact that Belgium's 270 persons per square kilometer, Holland's 255, and England's 188 are cited to minimize Japan's 190, it is equally valuable to compare the population per square mile of arable land. In this case, Japan has a population equivalent to 2,744 persons per square mile, compared to England's 2,170, Belgium's 1,700, Germany's and Italy's 806 and 819, and the United States' 229. In view of Japan's emphasis upon agriculture, these figures can not be ignored. They account largely for the use of small plots of land cultivated intensively. The answer of the militarists was expansion, although it is possible that this overpopulation could have been decreased in significance if agriculture had been permitted the use of capital, or if consumers' industry had absorbed a greater number and employed them

also with capital, increasing thereby the productivity per worker.

A final weakness of Japan's economic setup centers around a monopoly capitalism which by the middle 'thirties had succeeded in concentrating 70 per cent of the country's business in the hands of fifteen controlling interests. The Mitsui companies, with large interests in heavy industry, paper textiles, and commerce, and Mitsubishi, with financial, heavy industry, foodstuff, and shipping interests, were followed closely by the powerful Sumitomo and Yasuda concerns. Each of these concerns represented a family holding company, as in the case of the Mitsui Gomei Kaisha, having under direct or indirect control the whole gamut of financial, commercial, and manufacturing organization. Mitsui built up average holdings of 65.4 per cent in those companies it controlled directly, while indirect control was maintained by men in key positions or minority investments in its subsidiary companies. This same picture is repeated in the case of the other family groups at the head of the capital structure. And the important fact is that little or no investing public existed, the capital structure being such that capital was contained almost wholly within the leading fifteen families, with of course, the support of the lesser banks which did not represent a stockholding public as such. Large-scale economic policy was thus largely in the hands of those business interests, either the independent representatives in the companies or the governmental representatives, such as former Minister of Finance, Takahashi, one-time financial adviser to the Yasuda interests. These interests were largely responsible for a refusal to revamp the agricultural and small-scale industrial setup and the system of landholding, finding it to their advantage to keep the populace close to bankruptcy but not quite in it, thus obtaining for themselves cheap labor and a basis for their capital in the form of farm mortgages, in addition to subsidies from the government wrung from the agriculture class through taxes. Finally,

they held it largely in their own hands as to whether or not military expansion could take place, the political struggle between the army and capital during the 'thirties being not over the question of expansion per se but over the problem of methods and internal political control. Significantly, the populace had little to say because of this tremendous influence.

These weaknesses of the Japanese economy stood out in bold relief at the onset of the depression in 1929. We already have seen the effect upon the farmer. In addition, famine in the agricultural districts was copied by the industrial unemployment, which mounted to 5,000,000. The large-scale monopolists did not suffer so greatly as the other groups, but instead increased the scope of their holdings by squeezing out numerous small-scale industries. But popular opposition took the form of tenant-landowner and industrial-labor disputes, which paved the way in their cry for lower taxes and cheaper credit for the militarists propagandists to obtain a mass backing for the expansionist movement.

Japan had a choice of two avenues in the early 1930's. She could have cleaned up her internal economic structure, although she needed a certain amount of international co-operation in the process, principally a co-operation in the reasonable interchange of products in the world market. She likewise needed to show a willingness to abide by peaceful world trade in the obtaining of raw material and the disposal of her products instead of reliance on markets and raw materials obtained by conquest. In addition, her domestic situation needed reformation, principally the elimination of the landlord class and a wider capitalization of agriculture and peacetime industry, which would have increased productivity and made territorial outlet for population unnecessary. The population question could have been answered to a certain extent by birth-control information in addition to a planned migration within the Empire. Even after the acquisition of Manchuria,

the limited migration to this area seemed to disprove the militarists' argument in favor of expansion to relieve population pressure and threw light on the genuine strategic intent of the program. But the population problem was still a real one, which was partly responsible for the militarists' easy access to power. Such attempts to raise the standard of living of the population could well have been joined to a program of increasing mass participation in the capital system thereby decreasing the enormous oppressive force of the capitalist and landlord class. Naturally the capitalist groups refused to make any move toward reform; the landlords were unable to and certainly would not have permitted their own abolition. The military offered what seemed to be the only other answer, fascism at home and expansion abroad. To this, the plutocracy agreed, since it desired to control China as much as did the military, feeling that the conflict at home could be held in abeyance thereby so long as the economic and social system did not have to be changed. Had these economic weaknesses not existed in Japan, the military program would have made little headway.

It has not been the purpose of this article to justify the moral weakness of a people who sought to cure their material woes by international piracy. Nor is it intended to blueprint a program for the postwar solution of the Japanese problem. But we can not fail in our responsibility to ourselves as well as to the remainder of the civilized world to make sure that the Nipponese army can not again lead the Japanese people into a war which threatens our democratic existence.

The destruction of this military machine can not be considered a panacea for the Japanese menace. True, the economic picture we have drawn here has been changed in part by the war program. Industry has been put under closer supervision by government, and government funds have been coupled with the capital funds of the leading industrial families.

(Continued on page 20)

Oklahoma Bound

E. E. Oberholtzer

In this, the fourth of a series of autobiographical articles, Dr. Oberholtzer, an alumnus of Indiana State Teachers College and superintendent of the city schools in Houston, Texas, relates his experiences during his superintendency in Oklahoma.

It is sometimes a little embarrassing to tell too much about one's early years, yet one of the most impressive events of my early childhood was the preparation of some citizens of my immediate community to go to Oklahoma. It was the time of the "rush" when the Indian Territory was opened. I watched with eagerness for two or three days two of my neighbors preparing to move to Oklahoma to be ready for the "race into this new territory" to stake out claims. They were a widow and her son. All household goods and farm tools were packed, the team, the wagon, and everything that would enable them to start a new life in this "wild and woolly west" were made ready.

This event impressed upon my mind the huge expanse of the great areas beyond the Mississippi. For weeks I had listened to this widow's son tell the story of the Indians, the wild animals, the rich valleys, and the great opportunities of this new country. Perhaps it was a childish conception, yet I remember well that I made my resolve that sometime I would see Oklahoma and live there.

A CALL FROM BEYOND THE MISSISSIPPI

Although I had been superintendent of a middle-sized city for only two years, I could not resist the temptation to consider all opportunities coming out of the West. The board of recommendations of the university where I received my Master's degree was visited by a committee from Oklahoma, seeking a superintendent. This committee had traveled through

the mid-western states and on to the eastern seaboard interviewing superintendents whom they desired to interest in this position. I am very thankful that the university dropped my name in the pool.

I did receive a call from the committee and spent a full day with them in the discussion of their problems and community and the things they desired to do in building a new school system for that city. The committee was earnest in its desires and was eager to find a superintendent who had more than a passing interest. Maybe it was the childhood emotions that began to stir me, but somehow I felt even with limited knowledge that I would make every effort to go to Oklahoma.

The committee left; no word came for a month or more. But at the time when I had almost given up hope, the telegram making the offer came to me. Up to this time I had discussed the matter very little with family or friends. Now the decision must be made. I consulted my school board and recall very well the words of the president, a prominent doctor in the community. He told me he had been a teacher in Kansas and Oklahoma and other western states. He said that they were hardly pioneering in the schools. There was not much stability or professional standing given to teachers and superintendents. In fact, it was more their custom to change each year as some of the churches do their preachers. Of course, I had to gamble with the future in some respects, but it did seem to me that public education was fundamental and could be made a first objective for any American community.

I knew that Oklahoma was made up of new citizens who had come from all of the older states. I knew that each had brought with him his

own pattern of family and school life to guide him in his own reflections upon the needs of his newly acquired community. My wire to the board stated that I would visit them and the community, and, after the observation of such visit, I would make my decision. Through these observations, I discovered many interesting problems in this new community. Unless one has seen or lived in an early pioneer village in some of the western states, he can hardly appreciate how much one goes back to nature's way of simple living.

THE NEW BOOM TOWN

The school situation of this city was a troublesome one. When I visited the community, I found there had been three superintendents in the preceding two years. I found there had been two superintendents within one of these years, each disputing the rights of the other to hold the position, each supported by a separate community faction. It seemed a superhuman task to try to weld these opposing factions and to unify their interests in support of good schools. Although a city of some 30,000 population, dependent almost entirely upon its one industry, that of oil production, I found that the community, like all communities of its size, had many fine citizens interested in developing good schools.

My first year in this city kept me alert, listening and observing and trying to analyze the involved problems. Good strategy meant that in making an approach to the solution of such problems there must be enlisted the co-operative effort and interest of the citizen leaders.

The city had one high school. It also housed the superintendent's office and the twelve-room elementary school. With 30,000 population, less than 500 students were enrolled in high school. In reality, school to the youth was more or less a passing interest. In the initial stages, attention was brought to the leaders and the Chamber of Commerce of the need for a new and adequate high-school building, as well as the need for the

organization of a new and adequate high-school program.

In discussion of these matters before the Chamber of Commerce, I was told by one good citizen that they did not need a new upstart superintendent to tell them such things, for had he not lived there some forty years, and did he not know that it would be twenty years before there would be enough high-school students to fill even the present accommodations, all of which consisted of an old dilapidated building. However, the leaven began to work with community discussions and increased interest; there was crystallizing a desire for the new building and the new program. Thus, before the end of the year, supported by community sentiment, the board of education began courageously to urge funds which had to be voted through bonds to build the new building. First it was a \$100,000, then some ventured to suggest \$200,000, and even the Chamber of Commerce thought \$500,000 was not excessive.

Finally, I was asked to submit plans for the program and estimates for the costs of the buildings, and after the course of six months, a bond issue for \$500,000 was submitted. It carried, only to be challenged by some leading citizens on the grounds that the election was illegal because women voted. The attorney, although unable to answer the question of whether or not women should vote, thought the least harm would be done by according the voting privilege to the women. The case was carried to the State Supreme Court which decided in favor of the board of education.

In the meantime, however, a new community upheaval arose. Where should the new building be located? The city had two leading newspapers; each had its proposed location. One was determined to have it in the center of town on a small block of ground; the other proposed to move it two blocks to a new site secured by wrecking residences and there erect the building. At this point, the superintendent became involved again. He suggested twenty acres of open land which belonged to an Indian heir, a

minor. This property could be condemned and secured for the school site. In spite of every effort to convince the community that the building should be moved to this larger area, only about ten blocks from the center of the city, they could not be persuaded, because they could not foresee transportation. Thus, this is the story of the building which was afterward enlarged to a total cost of \$1,250,000, told only to explain how tradition influences community development negatively. At present, although built almost thirty years ago, this building stands as a monument to the school interest and vision of that community in so far as building and equipment are concerned, but almost a tragedy of youth in not affording a large spacious site. For walls and windows and classrooms and all possible accommodations do not fulfill all the requirements of a good school. What the twenty acres of ground would have added to the development of that school is a part of the missing opportunity in a high-school program for the development of the youth of that community.

But to recompense for the shortages in site and other accommodations, the completed building did provide the most modern facilities — two gymnasiums, two auditoriums, two swimming pools, lower floors given over to boxing, wrestling, and other indoor recreational activities, an enlarged department for industrial arts, for home economics, and for lunch room facilities occupying the space of one complete floor — all made ample for an enrollment of some 4,000 students. Thus, the new program and the new building, along with the growth of the city which tripled and quadrupled in the period, grew in its accommodations for 500 to 4,000 students.

In more than ten years of service as superintendent of the school system, that city came to be recognized as one of the most progressive and forward looking in the establishment of good schools. The citizens had become educated to the value of good schools. To this day, it has kept pace in many

ways as a leader among the school systems of the state.

Oklahoma is a great state with many fine citizens, who, as pioneers, have built schools in the great open spaces. Even in the smaller communities, one is apt to find the school to be the most prominent building of the community. Busses bring the children from the rural areas, and almost every child has an opportunity for a high-school education. Along with its natural resources, Oklahoma has become a leader among the states. I am very proud that I had the opportunity to live with its citizens and to serve them as one of their superintendents of schools during that early period of rapid progress.

But now, needless to say, excelling in size, excelling in its natural resources, and in its vast reaches, together with all the influences in the sphere of politics, economics, and citizenship, I choose Texas, greatest of all.

(In his next story Dr. Oberholtzer will relate some of his experiences "Deep in the Heart of Texas.")

Leech . . .

(Continued from page 18)

There has been the natural change from the manufacture of consumers' goods to munitions and producers' goods for war. But when the United Nations' strategy has broken the back of this militaristic government, Japan must return to a peacetime economy. Then the old ills will return again, some in a new fashion, many exactly as we have seen them here. Only when this is understood can we of the Republic join with the other United Nations in planning for a postwar period which will not develop into another prewar era. Whether we intend, on one hand, to dictate the internal reorganization of prostrate Japan after this war or, on the other, to gear the entire international economy into a working unity is the subject of another discussion. Whatever we do, we must consider such facts as we have presented here, pointing the direction and the emphasis of our planning.

A Letter to Parents of Pre-School Children

Elsie Wadsworth

Miss Wadsworth is considered one of the best progressive first-grade teachers in Indiana. She has done much to build school-community relationships and has made an excellent beginning in parent education. This open letter is of special interest to parents who have children entering school for the first time in grade one and who are interested in their children "getting a good start." Also, the primary teacher who has children in her class new to the community will find many suggestions for helping those new-comers to get acquainted and find new friends.

Miss Wadsworth received her Bachelor of Science degree from Indiana State Teachers College in 1940 and teaches in the Franklin School, Griffith, Indiana. She wrote this letter with no thought of using it except in her own situation, but we feel it should be published in order that other teachers can take advantage of it.

Some one has said that the first grade is a revolving door between the home and school through which the child passes into a delightful adventure or a painful experience. It should be a delightful adventure for the child, and parents and the teacher can work together intelligently for his ultimate good and happiness.

Parents understand that children develop physically at different times and at different rates. Children do not all walk or talk or cut their teeth at the same age. One child who develops rapidly mentally may read when he is five years old and another not until he is seven.

It is true that there is no more important subject than reading, and there is perhaps no more complex skill. The child does not enter the world with any ready-made equip-

ment for reading, such as he does for winking, sneezing, etc., but he must go through a long and tedious process of development before the queer-looking black marks on the printed page take on any meaning. He must be able to associate the meaning of the word with those queer-looking marks; he must be able to hear and see the difference between the words; and he must be able to focus his attention on one idea for a relatively long period of time. Children differ in these abilities as much as they differ in physical appearance and personal characteristics.

But learning to read is not the only skill which the child has to acquire at the first-grade level. When a child enters the first grade for the first time, he has a host of new adjustments to make and a multitude of school learnings to acquire which are not found in books. He must get acquainted with his teacher and with a large group of other children. He must become accustomed to being away from his family circle, from the protection of his mother and his older brothers and sisters. He must become accustomed to the loss of his own toys and learn to use the materials in the classroom. He must learn to share with others, to be on time, to give attention to activities that are not always interesting. He must curb his desire to do as he pleases. He must learn to focus his attention, to listen, observe, respond, and obey to an extent not previously demanded of him. He must become accustomed to receiving less individual attention from an adult and learn to be more self-dependent. This host of new learnings is often very confusing to little children and

consumes a great deal more time than any one without experience would believe.

It is often this delay which causes parents to become alarmed because their child has not learned to read immediately upon entering school. Parents should be patient and understand that when teachers are helping children make these adjustments and building up a background they are engaging in the most significant kind of teaching.

Then, too, there is the physical condition of the child which so vitally affects his progress in school. In spite of the excellent service of the summer round-up and the response and co-operation of so many parents, there are still too many children who start their school lives burdened with physical disabilities. Children who are handicapped by defective vision, hearing, or speech defects, and those who suffer from diseased tonsils, adenoids, bad teeth, constant colds, chronic constipation, fatigue from lack of sleep and rest, undernourishment, etc., will in all probability be unable to progress in school as well as physically normal children. The parent should give the child a fair start by having all physical disabilities adequately cared for.

The cultural background of the home very definitely affects progress. In homes possessing an abundance of good books, magazines, newspapers, music, and pictures, children are likely to have good collections of picture and story books of their own; to possess educational toys; to come in contact with visitors who have interesting things to tell; to receive encouragement from their parents in their reading interests and to receive help from them in their reading attempts. The lack of these influences in the home is a real handicap to the child who is being introduced to the reading process.

The child's experiences in the community — the trips he takes, the children he plays with — all help him to build up a meaningful background which helps him to understand the content of the primers and first read-

ers that he will use later. This, too, will help him make the necessary social adjustments which will prove to be such a large factor in his success.

The child will be more ready for reading if he comes from a home in which the parents are eager to have him read, and in which they have taken active steps toward developing his sensitiveness to reading. The actual job of teaching him to read had, perhaps, better be left to the teacher, but parents can greatly increase the child's desire to read by doing some or all of the things listed below.

1. Read Mother Goose Rhymes and short stories to the child. Let him follow along with his eye and supply missing words when he becomes familiar with the stories. Encourage him to reproduce short stories and to repeat rhymes. Have him anticipate what is going to happen next.

2. Give him blocks with letters, numbers, pictures, and words on them.

3. Encourage him to read the labels on grocery packages. Show him where it says, "salt," "tapioca," etc. Tell him what the signs say as you drive along the highway — "school," "slow," etc.

4. Teach him to print his name — but not with capitals.

5. Discourage baby talk. Teach him the correct name for all things. Teach him to use correct grammatical forms. A child not yet beyond the stage of saying, "Me want it," "He got hurted," etc., may have difficulty when ushered into a formal reading program.

6. Provide him with games in which it is necessary for him to match cards, words, and pictures.

7. Teach him to read pictures — to interpret the action and weave a story from the pictures.

8. Explain the meaning of new words. Encourage him to ask what words mean.

9. Teach him to distinguish between his right and left hand.

10. Teach him the meaning of first, second, third, and fourth.

11. Provide him with scissors, paste, crayons, and a color book. Teach him to use all these materials correctly.

12. Teach him to handle books and magazines carefully and only with clean hands, to turn pages from upper right corner and to keep books in a certain place so that he may put them away when he has finished looking at them. Teach him to find the front, back, and middle of the book by locating pictures in these sections.

13. Do not let the child hear you criticize the school or see that you are puzzled or troubled. Realize that your own over-eagerness will handicap him.

14. Confer with the teacher, principal, or superintendent when you are worried about your child's progress.

There are still other factors that are so vital and necessary to your child's progress that this letter would not be complete without some mention of them. No matter how much mental ability your child may possess, how ready he may be to read otherwise, if he possesses a negative personality or is unable to adjust himself socially, he will be handicapped beyond measure. The following are a few suggestions which will assist the child in building a well-rounded personality and in gaining emotional control.

1. Give your child a sense of security in a happy home life. Make home a place of affection and understanding.

2. Guard him against bullying and teasing. Sarcasm and ridicule can break the stoutest heart.

3. Cultivate an attitude of success. Success makes for mental health.

4. Create a spirit of courage. Help him overcome his fears.

5. Avoid all causes for jealousy.

6. In so far as possible, keep from him all the family troubles and worry.

7. Teach him to co-operate.

8. Teach him the difference between "mine and thine" — that we never use another's possessions without permission.

9. Teach him thoughtfulness for others.

10. Take him on as many excursions as possible. Teach him how to meet new social situations adequately.

11. Help him gain an appreciation for the beautiful.

Illustrious Alumni

CHARLES MYRON REINOEHL

Born at Corunna, Indiana, in 1878, Charles Myron Reinoehl completed his course of study at Indiana State in 1905. His Bachelor's and Master's degrees were received from Indiana University and his Doctor's degree from the University of Chicago. Early in his career he became a professor of pedagogy at Louisiana State Normal School. In 1911, he was appointed principal of the training school at Alabama State Normal School at Jacksonville. From there he went to Wisconsin State Normal School in Whitewater as professor of rural education. Later, after serving four years as state supervisor of rural schools in Montana, he became professor of education at the university of Arkansas. One of his chief interests in research and writing has been an analytical survey of state courses of study for rural elementary schools.

HARLAN H. MILLER

Now assistant professor of education in the New Jersey State Teachers College at Trenton is Harlan H. Miller, who graduated from Indiana State in 1921 with the degree of Bachelor of Arts. He received his Master's degree from Columbia and has taken advanced study at the University of Wisconsin and the University of Pennsylvania. As have many of State's graduate's, his teaching career began in the public schools of Evansville, Indiana. In 1925, he went from Evansville to Elizabeth, New Jersey, to accept the position of director of social studies in the public schools. He later served several years as principal of the Cleveland Junior High School, going from there to his present position. Among his publications are textbooks and ability tests for promotion in junior high schools.

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bility we have given a fair measure of energy; to the old one, we have given misdirected enthusiasm or indifference.

Before we are judged by our country and found guilty, we must see to it that our schools adapt their physical program to the needs of every boy and girl from the first grade through college. So far as it is possible we must try to make every boy swift and sure of movement, and every girl graceful and poised. We should strive to prepare for national service youth who can work hard and endure much, youth who are as proud of their physical fitness as of their mental ability. We must not develop a few prize specimens while the rest become culls. No farmer would be so shortsighted with his flocks and herds.

Can we not have our stimulating team sports — our Great God Basketball — without condemning the majority of our youth to softness simply because they aren't fast enough, strong enough, big enough to make the TEAM? Some schoolmen are saying we can and we will. A few, here and there, have fitted the deed to the word. Our survival and the survival of our public school system as we know it depend upon how well we do the job.

Illustrious Alumni

HORACE WARD MARSHALL

Horace W. Marshall spent ten years after graduating from Indiana State in 1904, as a high-school principal. He was a superintendent of schools for the next six. He went to Indiana Central College as a professor of education in 1920 and remained there until 1927, the year he received his Ph. D. degree. It was then that he left Indiana to become Professor of Education at New Mexico Normal University. Dr. Marshall is now Dean of N.M.N.U.

Conditions for an Enduring Peace

An Institute on Conditions for an Enduring Peace was held at Antioch College, Yellow Springs, Ohio, during July 5-15. This is a brief summary containing some of the remarks made during the seminars and discussions.

At the Institute on Conditions for an Enduring Peace held at Antioch College this summer, the audience listened to thirty nationally and internationally known men and women talk about the various problems of the postwar world. Those attending emerged with the idea that directly or indirectly, education enters into nearly every aspect of the postwar planning.

Three points were stressed in particular. One was made by the novelist Pearl Buck, who charged that education as it is now set up has barely touched the common people even in lands like ours where public schools presumably flourish. "The educated few," she said, "have only continued to monopolize the benefits of knowledge for themselves . . . they have not put their knowledge into simple books that the hungry people could understand and use."

Other speakers joined in demanding (a) an extension of educational opportunities for all, and (b) support of the proposed federal legislation to equalize educational opportunities in various states.

James B. Carey, Secretary-Treasurer of the CIO, made it clear that labor is not going to be satisfied with merely vocational education. "We need to decide," he said, "whether we want a nation of merely well fed, clothed, and housed individuals, who have developed no sense of beauty, cultivated no taste for reading, pictures, music, or other things which help to differentiate human beings from the lower forms of purely physical life. A really full standard of living must include more than material satisfaction. And unless our schools re-establish courses in other than the

immediately practical fields, which have been emphasized during the war, our long-range society will be impoverished in thought and feeling if not in merchandise."

The second point, made by several speakers, was that the schools need to go much farther than they have yet done in educating the citizen for effective participation in a democracy. As Mrs. Eleanor Roosevelt put it: "Every child must be given the idea that he has responsibilities in the community. The first and primary role of education is to teach the realities of history and government." S. Burns Weston, executive director of the Postwar Planning Commission of Greater Cleveland, declared: "We still have not managed to train leaders who understand what the democratic process really is; nor have we trained the rank and file to understand what the role of the democratic leader may be. It seems to me obvious that the only way they can be trained is to give them a sample of the environment in which they must function as citizens, while they are still in school."

Point number three was that the curriculum must be re-designed, especially in higher education, and its focus must be on present-day society. President A. D. Henderson, of Antioch, defined the three pressures on education today as "the expanding body of knowledge, the inter-dependence of the world with its resulting problems, and the fact that we are not teaching 'brains' but whole human beings."

Other points brought out during the Conference were the need for international re-education in such matters as race prejudice, etc., and the serious need for rural schools to train their students to live rich and satisfying lives in rural communities and small towns.

Education for Veterans

The May, 1945, issue of the JOURNAL contained an article entitled "Sound Educational Credit for Military Experience." It was a digest of a thirty-one page pamphlet distributed by the American Council on Education. The purpose of that pamphlet was to give young men and women leaving high school and college to enter the armed forces some answer to their question, "What assurance have we that adequate provision will be made for us to continue our education when we return from military service?"

In the following report are further details of what the American Council on Education has done and is doing for the benefit of those men and women whose educations have been interrupted temporarily.

Ten basic objectives and twelve specific courses for general education for members of the armed forces are contained in a report which a committee of the American Council on Education has recently completed at the request of the United States Armed Forces Institute. The suggested instructional material, planned primarily for the period following the end of hostilities, are already being prepared by the Institute for use in correspondence study and group instruction.

"These courses promise to provide opportunities for general education to a larger group of adults than ever before reached by a single program in history," said Dr. George F. Zook, president of the Council, in releasing the report. "The proposed program should serve as an effective bridge between military activities and the return of men and women to civilian life."

The report published for civilian use by the Council as *A Design for General Education* was prepared by a committee under the chairmanship of Dean T. R. McConnell of the University of Minnesota. The courses have been developed for men and wo-

men at the upper senior high-school or junior-college level. However, the Committee points out that persons who have served in the armed forces will possess a more mature point of view than the usual high-school or junior-college student, and the courses have therefore been prepared for adults.

Dr. Zook said, "The committee had not proceeded far with its work before it discovered that civilian educational institutions — particularly secondary schools, junior colleges, and colleges — would be as much interested in this report as the armed forces. These institutions recognize that the postwar educational programs for service personnel will probably demand new curricular patterns. Many schools and colleges are already studying their programs to get ready for this new responsibility. In addition, teachers and administrators throughout the country are reconsidering their provisions for general education." Familiarity with the *Design* should also assist institutions in serving returning service personnel who have enrolled in the courses described.

For a working definition the Committee considers general education as "the type of education which the majority of our people must have if they are to be good citizens, parents, and workers." Ten fundamental objectives are formulated in terms of performance — the ways in which educated men might properly be expected to behave. For example, the first objective states: "General education should lead the individual as a citizen in a free society to improve and maintain his own health and take his share of responsibility for protecting the health of others." This general statement is then followed by an outline of (1) the knowledge and understanding; (2) skills and abilities; and (3) attitudes and appreciations which must be acquired in order to achieve the

objective. Similar development is given for each of the ten basic objectives.

The report contains outlines of the courses proposed by the Committee. These include Personal and Community Health; Oral and Written Communication; Problems of Social Adjustment; Marriage and Family Adjustment; Development of American Thought and Institutions; Problems of American Life; America in International Affairs; Science — Biological and Physical; Literature — American Life and Ideals in Literature Readings; Form and Function of Art in Society; Music in Relation to Human Experience; Philosophy and Religion — The Meaning and Value of Life; and Vocational Orientation. Extensive bibliographies are provided for each course.

A Design for General Education for the Armed Forces is No. 18, Series I, of the American Council on Education Studies. It is paper bound and sells for \$1.25. Orders should be sent to the American Council on Education, 744 Jackson Place, Washington 6, D. C.

Kittle and Shannon . . .

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10. Daily commuters were rated by their principals as equally efficient as the average non-commuters, and weekly commuters were largely so also. Both groups of commuters compared less favorably with non-commuters in their participation in school functions, and much less favorably in their participation in community functions. Nevertheless, they were fully as well paid.

When the Master (Confucius) was traveling to Wei, Jan Yu drove him. "What a numerous population," remarked the Master.

"The people having grown so numerous, what next should be done for them?" asked Jan Yu.

"Enrich them," was the reply.

"And when you have enriched them, what next should be done?" he asked.

"Educate them," was the answer.

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